



The status of natural radioactivity in Nigerian environments

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Abstract

Proper documentation of baseline radiation data of different environments is an important step toward adequate environmental monitoring, and it provides quick means to quantitatively check and determine possible radionuclide contamination by anthropogenic sources. Besides, such documentation is useful for decision making processes, assessment of dose rates to the public, epidemiological studies, and environmental regulations. This review summarizes the results of studies conducted on radioactivity in Nigerian environments. For most soil samples, the levels of radioactivity are well within the world averages of 33, 45, and 420 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th and ⁴⁰K, respectively. Other soil samples from regions such as Abeokuta in the southwest, and Jos in the northcentral have been described as high background radiation areas with radioactivity values comparable with those obtained from known high background radiation areas such as the Odisha (formerly Orissa) coast in India (with values reported as 350, 2,825, and 180 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²³⁸U/²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, respectively). In some parts of Nigeria, surface and underground water sources used for drinking and other purposes also present elevated levels of ²²⁶Ra above the world range of 0.01 to 0.1 Bq l⁻¹ and the tolerable levels recommended by the World Health Organization and U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Corresponding radiation doses due to measured radioactivities from different environments were estimated and compared with those reported in similar studies around the world. More so, the human and environmental health hazards that might be associated with the reported radioactivity in different environmental settings are discussed. The present report is expected to support authorities in developing appropriate regulations to protect the public from radiation exposure arising from environmental radioactivity. The report also examines other areas of consideration for future studies to ensure adequate radiation monitoring in Nigeria.

Keywords NORM · TENORM · Nigerian environment · Background radiation · Radiation dose

Introduction

In general, the background radiation dose in any human environment is due to contribution from both natural and anthropogenic sources. The background level from natural sources depends on the geological composition, mineral composition, and the presence of U, Th, and K in rocks and soils of a particular place (Abba et al. 2017; Shuaibu et al. 2017). In contrast, certain human activities which may result in environmental contamination by radionuclides account for anthropogenic sources. In Nigeria, apart from exposure due to natural radioactivity in soil and rock, human activities such as extraction and reprocessing of crude oil, solid mineral mining, and milling also contribute a significant portion to the total radiation level in the environment (Alatise et al. 2008). Although natural background radiation levels for most of the regions have not yet been established, some notable efforts have been made in the last two decades of

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environmental radioactivity assessment (Abba et al. 2017). Despite of these activities, however, systematic data on natural and artificial radioactivity in Nigeria is scarce and, therefore, there is a need for the creation of a scientific database of levels of radioactivity in Nigeria. Nowadays, human radiation exposure is increasingly considered in decision making processes and for the formulation of sound environmental policies (Guidotti et al. 2015). While Lagos state is known as the center of significant industrial activities in Nigeria, different industrial activities are currently spreading to other parts of the country. This development suggests that in the next few years, many other states in Nigeria may witness the growth of various sorts of industries. Presently, there are concerns regarding the environmental implications of mining activities spreading across the northcentral and parts of the southwestern states of the country (Oramah et al. 2015; Omotehinse and Ako, 2019). Consequently, there is an urgent need to gather information on radiation levels across Nigeria into a single document for easy access. Such data should provide a valuable and useful reference when standard and regulatory control actions on radiation protection are to be established (Doyi et al. 2017). Note that current efforts of the Nigerian government are geared toward the deployment of a pioneer nuclear power plant to cover the energy need of the country within the next few years, which in turn may impact the environmental radioactivity levels when in operation (Aliyu et al. 2013).

The main objective of the present study is, therefore, to concentrate different studies on natural environmental radioactivity levels for different regions in the country into single radiation-data report for easier accessibility by decision-makers and for the general public. A report of this kind is anticipated to support in developing a holistic view of the current situation of human exposure due to environmental radioactivity in Nigeria. This should support the development and implementation of adequate guidelines towards the use of radioactive materials and other practices that may enhance background radioactivity levels in the environment. The report may also serve as a useful reference in the design and development of specific regional surveys where there are enhanced radioactivity levels.

Methods of radioactivity measurements and associated radiological hazard indices

For the purpose of environmental radiation monitoring, quantification of radioactivity levels in environmental materials is pivotal. In achieving this, different techniques/methods can be employed, depending on the type of radiation emitted by the radionuclides present. Most of the authors of studies reviewed in the present paper employed the use of the gamma-ray spectrometry method involving high purity

germanium (HPGe) detectors or thallium-activated sodium iodide (NaI(Tl)) detectors. Such detectors allow measurement of very low concentrations of naturally occurring radioactive materials (NORMs). Normally, the radionuclides of interest (e.g., ^{238}U , ^{232}Th) are quantified based on the gamma-rays emitted from their short-lived progeny, or on the gamma-rays emitted by ^{40}K (Olatunji et al. 2014). Table S1 presents the main radionuclides of interest and their gamma-emitting daughters investigated by various authors of the reviewed literature.

Whether by use of HPGe or NaI(Tl) detectors, the radioactivity concentration in any given material, neglecting several corrections such as coincidence summing and gamma-ray attenuation, etc., can be obtained from Eq. (1) (Khandaker et al. 2012; 2013; Asaduzzaman et al. 2015):

$$A = \frac{N}{\epsilon_{\gamma} I_{\gamma} m t} (\text{Bq/kg}), \quad (1)$$

where A is the radioactivity concentration in the sample, N is the net counts or counting area under a photopeak, ϵ_{γ} is the efficiency of the detector for particular gamma-ray energy, m is the mass of the sample, I_{γ} is the branching ratio or intensity of the emitted gamma-ray, and t is the counting time.

The radioactivity concentration in any material and the time of exposure determines the radiation dose received by an individual. Once the radioactivity concentration in any material is quantified, radiation indices describing the level of exposure and assessing the extent of any radiological health hazards can be evaluated. The most common of these indices is known as radium equivalent activity (Ra_{eq}). This activity is defined as the weighted sum of activities in NORMs based on the assumption that 370 Bq kg^{-1} of ^{226}Ra , 259 Bq kg^{-1} of ^{232}Th , and 4,810 Bq kg^{-1} of ^{40}K produce the same gamma-ray dose rate (Oyeyemi and Aizebeokhai 2015). This is reflected in Eq. (2) (OECD 1979; UNSCEAR 1982):

$$\text{Ra}_{\text{eq}} = A_{\text{Ra}} + 1.43A_{\text{Th}} + 0.077A_{\text{K}}, \quad (2)$$

where A_{Ra} , A_{Th} , and A_{K} represent radioactivity concentrations of ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K , respectively. The radium equivalent activity for building materials has recommended reference value of 370 Bq kg^{-1} , and 740 Bq kg^{-1} for materials used in road construction (Isinkaye 2008).

The outdoor absorbed dose rate (D_{out} , $n\text{Gy h}^{-1}$) in air at 1 m above the ground surface is another useful parameter for estimating the level of external exposure. By definition, absorbed dose is defined as the energy deposited in matter by ionizing radiation per unit mass (Ademola and Atare 2010). Following the standard guidelines of UNSCEAR (2000), D_{out} can be calculated for natural radionuclides using the conversion factors ($4.62 \times 10^{-10} \text{Gy h}^{-1} / \text{Bq kg}^{-1}$ for ^{226}Ra , $6.04 \times 10^{-10} \text{Gy h}^{-1} / \text{Bq kg}^{-1}$ for ^{232}Th , and

$0.417 \times 10^{-10} \text{Gy h}^{-1} / \text{Bq kg}^{-1}$ for ^{40}K). Consequently, Eq. (3) is used for external absorbed dose rate calculation (UNSCEAR 1988; 2000):

$$D_{\text{out}} (\text{nGy h}^{-1}) = 0.462A_{\text{Ra}} + 0.604A_{\text{Th}} + 0.042A_{\text{K}}. \quad (3)$$

The average global terrestrial radiation dose rate has been estimated at 57 nGy h^{-1} while the country average ranged from 24 to 160 nGy h^{-1} (UNSCEAR 2000). To assess the biological effects of ionizing radiation, the absorbed dose rate in air is usually related to effective dose. For external exposure, an outdoor annual effective dose (AED_{out}) has been introduced, to calculate the dose received by an individual due to the presence of radionuclides in the environment (e.g., in soil and mineral ores, water, and building materials). The outdoor annual effective dose received by an individual free-in-air resulting from the external absorbed dose rate can be obtained from Eq. (4) (UNSCEAR 1982, 2000):

$$AED_{\text{out}} = T f Q D_{\text{ext}}, \quad (4)$$

where the AED_{out} is typically given in terms of Sievert per year (Sv y^{-1}), T is the annual exposure time (given as $8,760 \text{ h y}^{-1}$), f is the occupancy factor that corrects for the average time an individual is exposed to outdoor radiation, and Q is the conversion factor of external absorbed dose rate in the air to effective dose rate in human. The values of these factors have been set by international regulatory bodies, so that dose estimation is harmonized all over the world. According to the United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR 2000), 0.2 is set as the value for the outdoor occupancy factor (indicating approximately an outdoor exposure of 5 hours per day), 0.7 Sv Gy^{-1} is the conversion factor for external gamma irradiation (which converts the external outdoor absorbed dose rate to outdoor effective dose rate), respectively. However, it is important to note that the occupancy factor can change depending on individual lifestyle. For instance, outdoor exposure to radiation from radionuclides in the soil can be up to about 10 h per day for West African farmers, where virtually all agricultural activities are manually practiced (Jibiri et al. 2009a). Sometimes, incorporation (by inhalation or ingestion) of radionuclides in dust particles from environmental samples such as soil or building materials is inevitable, due to the nature of activities involved with these materials. In such a case, the resulting effective dose from internal exposure can also be calculated for radiological hazard purposes. The worldwide average annual effective dose is estimated as 0.45 mSv y^{-1} (UNSCEAR 1993).

Consequently, the indoor gamma dose rate (D_{in}) and the corresponding annual effective dose (AED_{in}) due to the exposure of gamma-rays emitted from the radionuclides in the soil or other building materials can also be calculated,

just as is done above. Equation (5) is recommended for calculation of the indoor absorbed dose rate (D_{in}) (UNSCEAR 1988; 2000):

$$D_{\text{in}} (\text{nGy h}^{-1}) = 0.92A_{\text{Ra}} + 1.1A_{\text{Th}} + 0.080A_{\text{K}}. \quad (5)$$

Similarly, the indoor annual effective dose (AED_{in}) can be calculated by the following equation:

$$AED_{\text{in}} = T y Q D_{\text{in}}, \quad (6)$$

where y represents the indoor occupancy factor that corrects for the average time by an individual spent indoors, while the other quantities retain their usual meanings. In this case, the value of 0.8 for the indoor occupancy factor has been set by international regulatory bodies, assuming that 80% of a person's time is spent indoors. Note again, this is an average time spent; differences may occur depending on individual lifestyle.

Apart from external exposure, internal exposure to natural radionuclides is unavoidable due to consumption of water. Hence, annual effective dose (AED_{ing}) due to ingestion of radionuclides in drinking water is usually calculated following the following equation (UNSCEAR 2008):

$$AED_{\text{ing}} = \sum A_c A_i C_f, \quad (7)$$

where A_c represents the activity concentration of any radionuclide in water, A_i is the annual intake of drinking water and C_f is the ingestion dose conversion factor for the radionuclide, which depends on the particular radionuclide and the age of the individual ingesting the radionuclide.

The reference value recommended by the European Union for the annual effective dose is 1 mSv y^{-1} and as proposed by ICRP, 1 Sv of effective dose roughly implies a 5% probability of dying from cancer and/or developing some heritable effects at some time in life (ICRP 2007).

The radiological suitability of any material used for building purposes is usually assessed using the external hazard index (H_{ex}). For natural radiation, the external hazard index is expressed by the following equation (OECD 1979):

$$H_{\text{ex}} = \frac{A_{\text{Ra}}}{370} + \frac{A_{\text{Th}}}{259} + \frac{A_{\text{K}}}{4810}. \quad (8)$$

The external hazard index can also be obtained from the expression for Ra_{eq} assuming that its maximum allowed value corresponds to the upper limit of Ra_{eq} (370 Bq kg^{-1}) (i.e. $H_{\text{ex}} = \frac{Ra_{\text{eq}}}{370}$), so that the annual dose rate does not exceed 1.5 mSv y^{-1} . To limit the external gamma radiation dose from building materials to 1.5 mSv y^{-1} so that radiation hazard is negligible, the external hazard index should obey the criterion of $H_{\text{ex}} \leq 1$.

Furthermore, the internal hazard index is the criterion for assessing radiation hazard due to internal exposure (via the

inhalation pathway) to gaseous radon and thoron, the decay products of ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra , as well as the internal exposure (via ingestion of foodstuffs) to alpha and beta particles emitting short-lived progeny of ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra , and singly occurring beta emitter ^{40}K . The internal hazard index (H_{in}) due to NORMs is quantified using the following equation (Beretka and Matthew 1985):

$$H_{in} = \frac{A_{Ra}}{185} + \frac{A_{Th}}{259} + \frac{A_K}{4810}. \quad (9)$$

If the maximum radioactivity concentration of ^{226}Ra is half of that of the permissible limit, then H_{in} will be less than unity. For the safe use of a material in the construction of dwellings, this index should be, $H_{in} \leq 1$.

Besides this, the gamma index (I_γ) or representative index is used to correlate the annual dose rate due to the excess external gamma radiation caused by surface contamination. As a screening tool, it helps in identifying materials that may pose danger to human health when used in the construction of the building (Jibiri et al. 2009a; ITB/CLOR 1995). The gamma index, as proposed by the European Commission, is given in the following equation (EC 1999):

$$I_\gamma = \frac{A_{Ra}}{300} + \frac{A_{Th}}{200} + \frac{A_K}{3000}. \quad (10)$$

The value of $I_\gamma \leq 1$ corresponds to an annual effective dose of less than or equal to 1 mSv y^{-1} , while $I_\gamma \leq 0.5$ corresponds to an annual effective dose less than or equal to 0.3 mSv y^{-1} .

The excess alpha radiation due to radon inhalation from building materials is estimated by the alpha index (I_α) (Eq. (11) (EC 1999):

$$I_\alpha = \frac{A_{Ra}}{200}. \quad (11)$$

The recommended exempted upper level of ^{226}Ra is set between 100 Bq kg^{-1} and 200 Bq kg^{-1} , respectively. The implication is that a radium concentration higher than 200 Bq kg^{-1} in building materials may cause an indoor radon concentration exceeding 200 Bq m^{-3} , while concentration below 100 Bq kg^{-1} implies an indoor radon concentration well below 200 Bq m^{-3} . The recommended upper limit for ^{226}Ra for which $I_\alpha = 1$ is 200 Bq kg^{-1} (ICRP 1994).

The annual gonadal dose equivalent (AGDE) which represents a yearly dose received by gonads, bone marrows and bone surface cells due to specific activities of ^{238}U , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K (UNSCEAR 1998), can be calculated using the following equation (ICRP 1991; UNSCEAR 1988):

$$\text{AGDE} = 3.09A_{Ra} + 4.18A_{Th} + 0.314A_K. \quad (12)$$

The world average value of AGDE for soil is 0.30 mSv y^{-1} (Ademola 2008). In addition to the AGDE, the excess

lifetime cancer risk (ELCR) is estimated from the annual effective dose by Eq. (13) (ICRP 2007):

$$\text{ELCR} = \text{AED}_{in} \times A_{lf} \times R_f, \quad (13)$$

where A_{lf} and R_f represent the average lifetime (70 y) and detriment-adjusted nominal cancer risk coefficient ($5.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Sv}^{-1}$) for public exposure, respectively (ICRP 2007).

For most of the studies on environmental radioactivity in Nigeria, the aforementioned radiological hazard indices have been estimated and their corresponding health impacts assessed. In the present paper, reports of studies considered most important were selected which cover all the regions in Nigeria where higher radioactivity levels are known or have been suspected due to human activities. The results of review conducted on various studies are summarized in Tables (S2–S7).

Radioactivity levels in soil and other environmental settings

According to the Soil Science Society of America, soils are complex mixtures of minerals, water, air, organic matter, countless organisms, and decaying remains of once-living creatures. Soil is formed at the surface of the land and can be considered the ‘skin of the earth’. It is very important to live on earth, as all the essentials for man's survival, except air, come from the soil. Furthermore, soil occupies the space in which humans exercise their activities and from which they derive the essential necessities for survival (Ajayi et al. 2008). Considering the central role of soil on the continuity of life on earth, the determination of soil radioactivity is critical because it helps in understanding the distribution and behavior of radionuclides in the environment where humans live. From the radiation protection point of view, the soil is the main source of continuous radiation exposure to humans, and also the medium of migration and transfer of radionuclides to biological systems (Doyi et al. 2017). As a result, estimation of the total absorbed dose from exposure pathways is not complete without consideration of soil. Soil background radioactivity levels may vary from place to place depending on the geological features of the considered area. Rocks are very important in this regard because they form the basic material of soil. Consequently, the types of rock determine the level of radioactivity in soil. Deposition of mineral resources such as fertilizers in the subsurface layers of soil can also be responsible for varying levels of soil background radioactivity. Furthermore, contamination due to disasters following natural processes (such as volcano eruptions and landslides) may also be responsible for elevated background radioactivity levels measured in some

soils and environmental samples across the world. Because the evaluation of radioactivity levels in soils, rocks, water, and other environmental samples, is very crucial for environmental health safety. The radioactivity levels in Nigeria are reviewed here including various reports on measurements that have been carried out in soils, rocks, mineral materials, water, exploration/extraction process and building materials, since the time when radiation protection activities were launched in the country.

Radioactivity levels measured in soils, water, and sediments

Attempts have been made here to identify the most relevant studies conducted on the measurement of terrestrial background radioactivity levels in normal soil, water, and sediments obtained from different regions of Nigeria. The results obtained in these studies and their associated radiological hazard indices are summarized in Tables S2–S4.

As revealed in the tables, the background radiation levels in normal/undisturbed soil, water and sediment samples across the country are mostly low and fall within those typical for normal background radiation areas (Obed et al. 2005; Ajayi 2008; 2009; Amakom and Jibiri 2010; Eke et al. 2015; Isola et al. 2015). However, there are a few exceptions where high radioactivity levels were recorded, i.e., in soils of the Owo area of Ondo and the Abeokuta area of Ogun in the southwest region of Nigeria, and soils of industrial districts of the Federal Capital city Abuja and Jos-Plateau in the northcentral region (Fig. 1) (Aladeniyi et al. 2019). At these locations the radioactivity levels are higher than the world average values of 33, 45, and 420 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, respectively, reported by the United Nations Scientific Committee for the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR 2000). The sediment samples from Oguta Lake in the south-east of Nigeria and from Bonny estuary in the Niger Delta show also radioactivity levels higher than the global average levels of 25, 25, and 50 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, respectively, reported by UNSCEAR (1998). Similarly, the radioactivity levels of some water sources available for drinking and other domestic purposes in some localities warrant concern. Different national and international bodies such as the World Health Organisation (WHO) have introduced permissible levels of 1.0, 0.1, and 10 Bq l⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, ²²⁸Ra, and ⁴⁰K, respectively, for drinking water (WHO 2008, 2011), and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency recommended maximum levels of 15 pCi L⁻¹ (0.55 Bq l⁻¹) for alpha emitters, 4 mrem per year (40 μSv per year) for beta and photon emitters, 5 pCi L⁻¹ (0.18 Bq l⁻¹) for radium (²²⁶Ra/²²⁸Ra), and 30 μg L⁻¹ (0.74 Bq l⁻¹) for uranium in drinking water (USEPA 2000). These values are lower than the radioactivity levels of natural radionuclides

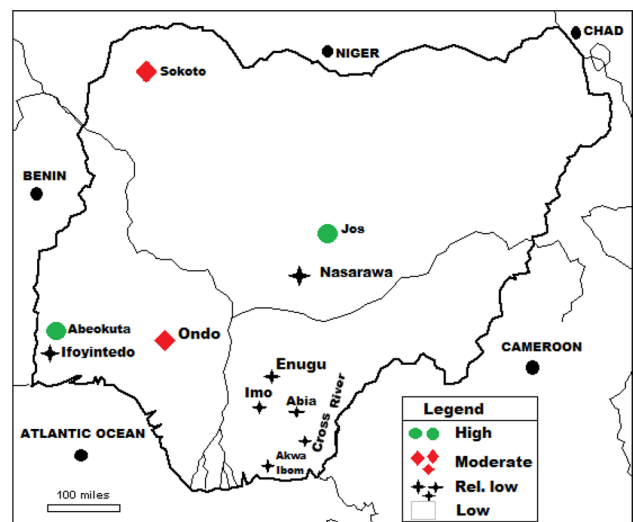


Fig. 1 Map of Nigeria showing background radioactivity distribution patterns. The classification of “high”, “moderate”, “rel. low”, and “low” is based on ²²⁶Ra, ²³⁸U, and ²³²Th radioactivity concentrations measured in samples of rocks, soils, or sediments as reported in the literature

(²²⁶Ra in particular) reported for drinking water samples collected from the Federal Capital city Abuja in the northcentral region of Nigeria (Umar et al. 2012), and for the Niger Delta in the oil-rich southern region (Agbalagba and Onoja 2011), Ile-Ife in Osun state (Tchokossa et al. 1999) and some parts of Ogun state (Ajayi and Achuka 2009). The elevated levels of radionuclides in the soil and drinking water in the abovementioned areas are an indication of contamination which may be due to anthropogenic activities in those areas, where these samples were collected. Because some of the authors of the reviewed studies have raised concerns, further studies are encouraged on the plant, animal and human radiation exposure due to the usage of soil, sediment and water in the mentioned areas.

Measured radioactivity in mineral materials

Through efforts of numerous research groups, radiation data have been generated for a few mineral materials and chemical elements such as rocks, tin, kaolin, bitumen, barite, hydrocarbon (coal), and gold in the country. The measured activity concentrations of natural radionuclides, mainly ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, in the various minerals and elements and their corresponding radiological parameters are summarized in Table S5.

Generally, radioactivity concentrations in mineral samples collected in Nigeria are low and comparable to those from other parts of the world (Ajayi and Kuforiji 2001; Fasasi et al. 2003; Balogun et al. 2003; Mokobia et al. 2006;

Ademola et al. 2008; Jibiri and Emelue 2008; Isinkaye et al. 2015), except for the phosphate rock site in Sokoto (Ogunleye et al. 2002; Gbadebo and Amos 2010; Kolo 2014) and the kaolin field in the Ifonyintedo area of Ogun state (Adagunodo et al. 2018). For example, phosphate rocks from Sokoto have a radium equivalent activity higher than the 370 Bq/kg permissible limit recommended by OECD (1979), and mineral sands from Jos Plateau showed elevated radioactivity levels above those reported for areas of high natural radioactive background (Arogunjo et al. 2009). Although most of the obtained radioactivity concentrations are low and should not pose any radiological hazards to the local population, it is recommended that periodic assessments of radioactivity levels of these mineral resources are performed, for radiological health monitoring purposes.

Radioactivity due to exploration and extraction processes

Anthropogenic activities have the potential of changing the radioactivity profile of the environment. Many exploration and extraction processes are going on in the country which may potentially alter the radioactivity levels of the environment and consequently influence the exposure to ionizing radiation. For instance, the Niger Delta region with its widespread environmental degradation has been referred to as an ecological wasteland by the United Nations Environment Program, as a result of contamination from unregulated oil and gas production in the region (Babatunde et al. 2019). The presence of huge mining activities across the northcentral states and in some parts of the southwestern states of Nigeria has also raised concerns about the environmental implications (Jibiri et al. 2009a, 2009b). Hence, research studies investigating the radioactivity levels in the environment around exploration and extraction sites of mineral resources would help to determine how far the host communities and farmlands have been impacted radiologically. Important studies in this regard have been reviewed here and the results are summarized in Table S6.

The information summarized in Table S6 suggests that radioactivity levels of Nigerian soils have been affected in some ways where anthropogenic activities are currently taking place. Although in some cases soil radioactivity levels are not higher than the world average values of 33, 45, and 420 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, respectively (UNSCEAR 2000; Okeji et al. 2012; Jibiri and Esen 2013; Ibrahim et al. 2013; Jibiri and Temaugee 2013; Nwankpa 2015; Kolo et al. 2017), the obtained values are higher than the values in the undisturbed soils from the same locality. This is an indication that industrial activities may have increased the radioactivity levels in these soils. In other cases, the background radiation levels in soils of disturbed

and undisturbed areas have exceeded both the world average values and the reference value of 1 mSv y⁻¹ recommended by the ICRP, NCRP and CFR due to contamination by industrial activities (Dike et al. 2019; Isola et al. 2019; Osimobi et al. 2018; Nwankwo et al. 2014; Ademola and Olatunji 2013; Olise et al. 2011; Nwankwo and Akoshile 2005; Oyeyemi et al. 2017; ICRP 1999, 2019; CFR 1979; NCRP 1975). For instance, most Niger Delta areas, particularly the oil and gas production areas in the Delta state were reported to have exceeded the permissible radiation dose for the public (Jibiri and Farai 1998; Agbalagba et al. 2012; Anekwe et al. 2013). Also, the soil radioactivity levels of the north-central region such as those at the tin mining sites in Jos Plateau, and the solid mineral (such as barite, copper, zinc, lead, tantalite, and granite) mining areas at the Nasarawa and Ilorin quarry sites in Kwara, have all exceeded the normal background radiation levels (Jibiri et al. 2009b; Aliyu et al. 2015a; Olise et al. 2010). Similar situations have been reported in the southwest region such as the Ogun and Ondo states where bitumen exploration and other industrial activities are currently being practiced (Oyeyemi and Aizebeokhai 2015; Olawale et al. 2018), and waste dumpsite in southern region (Awwiri and Olatunbosun 2014). The most important concern is the possibility of leaching of radionuclides from contaminated soils into water bodies, drainage, dust, etc., which can be transported to farm soils and subsequently get incorporated into the human food chain. When farmlands are contaminated this way, it can negatively impact agricultural practices and this could eventually result in food insecurity. Hence, it is suggested that regular monitoring, control and remediation strategies are necessary for and around exploration and extraction sites to avoid any radiation-related health consequences for workers and members of the public.

Radioactivity in local and imported commercial building materials

Radioactivity levels in building materials such as cement, concrete blocks and tiles which are made and used in different parts of the country have also been measured. The measured activity concentrations for ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K with their corresponding radiological hazard indices have been reviewed and summarized in Table S7.

It can be concluded from the studies of radioactivity measurements in commercial building materials summarized in Table S7 that radioactivity levels higher than the world averages were found, but that this does not translate into significantly higher radiation exposures by the inhabitants (Farai and Ademola 2001; Ademola and Farai 2005; Farai and Ejeh 2006; Jibiri and Adewuyi 2008; Ademola 2009; Joel et al. 2018; Okeyode et al. 2019). The higher radioactivity levels in these building materials could be

attributed to the radioactivity levels in the raw materials from which these materials were obtained. Since the studied building materials were obtained from both local and foreign sources, thorough efforts are required to regularly monitor the radioactivity levels of commercially imported building materials, while building materials produced locally and corresponding raw materials should be monitored. Such efforts are necessary to avoid unnecessary exposure of dwellers to radiation when staying in their buildings.

Discussion and way forward

From the reviewed literature performed it is obvious that quite some studies on the natural radioactivity in Nigeria have been performed in the last 2 decades. The review shows a wide variation of natural radioactivity concentrations in environmental samples. On the one hand, the radioactivity levels measured in normal soils are well within the world averages of 33, 45, and 420 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, respectively (UNSCEAR 2000). On the other hand, however, soils from certain areas have shown a rather high background radiation levels, sometimes even far higher values compared to the corresponding world averages (Farai and Jibiri 2000; Ajayi and Achuka 2009; Alatise et al. 2008; Jibiri et al. 2009a; Umar et al. 2012; Olise et al. 2014; Oyeyemi and Aizebeokhai 2015; Oyeyemi et al. 2017). The radionuclide concentrations measured in samples from different areas reflect the different geological structures of those areas, their geographical peculiarities, soil types and climatic conditions (Abba et al. 2017). Soils high in ²³⁸U have been associated with the widespread occurrence of igneous rocks whereas those high in ²³²Th have been found mostly in soils that originated from sedimentary rocks (Guidotti et al. 2015). This may explain why the rocks in Sokoto show higher ²²⁶Ra (daughter of ²³⁸U) than ²³²Th concentrations (Ogunleye et al. 2002; Arogunjo et al. 2009; Joshua et al. 2009), and the same goes for rocks from the southern area (Joshua et al. 2009). In contrast, investigations carried out on northeastern and northcentral rocks revealed higher ²³²Th than ²³⁸U concentrations (Ademola and Ayeni 2010; Maxwell et al. 2014; Arabi et al. 2016), which is consistent with a high content of ²³²Th in the rocks obtained from Ondo state in southwestern Nigeria (Ademola and Ayeni 2010). This implies that the rock type from which the soil formed played a major role in the soil's radioactivity level. Geologically, half of Nigeria is based on crystalline rocks or basement complexes (composed of metamorphic and igneous rocks such as migmatites, granites and gneisses) while the other half is based on sedimentary rocks (Jibiri et al. 2009a). Based on the reported studies, typical Nigerian soil radioactivity levels measured for some high background radiation areas ranged between 65 and 163 Bq kg⁻¹ (²²⁶Ra),

between 184 and 451 Bq kg⁻¹ (²³²Th), and between 411 and 1,062 Bq kg⁻¹ (⁴⁰K) (Olomo et al. 1994; Jibiri et al. 2009a; Ademola et al. 2014; Ademola and Ademonehin 2010; Abba et al. 2018). The radioactivity levels are even higher for sediments in some riverine areas and reach values of up to 484 (²²⁶Ra), 812 (²³⁸U), 840 (²³²Th), and 3,760 Bq kg⁻¹ (⁴⁰K) (Isinkaye and Emelue 2015; Babatunde et al. 2015). These values are comparable to those present in some known high background radiation areas such as, for example, the Odisha coast in India (where corresponding values of 350, 2,825, and 180 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²³⁸U, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, were reported, respectively) (Mohanty et al. 2004). Figure 1 below is a map of Nigeria showing the variation of background radiation in different areas as deduced in the present review. As seen in Fig. 1, Jos Plateau in the northcentral and Abeokuta—Ogun in the southwestern part of the country are considered as high background radiation areas. The distribution pattern shown in Fig. 1 is due to the radionuclide concentrations measured in either rock or sediment samples taken from different areas in Nigeria.

Sometimes, high natural radiation levels and release of artificial radionuclides (such as ¹³⁷Cs) into the environment are attributable to anthropogenic activities involving the exploitation of mineral resources or use of nuclear materials in operations (Akinloye et al. 2012; Ademola and Obed 2012; Usikalu et al. 2014; Onwuka and Ononugbo 2019). Nigeria is rich in mineral deposits and these minerals are widely distributed across different regions of the country. The oil-rich Niger Delta region of Nigeria has been known for a long time for extensive exploration and extraction of crude oil and gas, while the northcentral states (Jos Plateau, Niger, and Nasarawa) are among the areas where solid minerals have been mined for a century. This review showed that the radioactivity levels in these areas vary widely. For example, samples from dumped tailing and mining sites in northcentral states have shown very high radioactivity concentrations of up to 27,240 (²³⁸U), 42,480 (²³²Th), and 670 Bq kg⁻¹ (⁴⁰K), which are higher than those reported from high normal background radiation areas in other parts of the world (Olise et al. 2010, 2014; Aliyu et al. 2015a). Because of such high values, some authors have expressed worries about the human and environmental health in these areas (Oramah et al. 2015; Aliyu et al. 2015a, 2015b; Omotehinse and Ako 2019). However, since high radioactivity levels do not necessarily imply direct radiological consequences from the radiation protection point of view, conversion of radionuclide concentration to effective doses for the population is necessary for radiological impact assessment. The doses estimated from the corresponding radioactivity measurements have been reviewed and are included in the summary Tables (Tables S2–S7). As proposed by the ICRP, 1 Sv of effective dose roughly implies a 5% probability of dying from cancer at some time in life (ICRP 2007). Doses obtained from

most of the areas reviewed here are not higher than those obtained in normal background radiation areas across the world (Ajanaku et al. 2018; Agbalagba et al. 2016a; Olarinoye et al. 2010; Sohrabi 2013), but there are a few exceptions where annual effective doses have been reported higher than 1 mSv y^{-1} reference value for the general public (Ibeanu 2003; Agbalagba et al. 2016b). The high doses in these areas can be linked to the contamination of the environment due to heavy human exploitation and extraction activities. This is an indication that inhabitants of these areas may be experiencing some increased radiological health risks now or in the future. Since studies quantifying any effects of ionizing radiation on human or non-human biota are still very sparse in the country, epidemiological studies are needed to address any health effects of long-term exposure to elevated levels of natural radioactivity across the country, especially now that studies have shown that cancer cases are currently increasing among the people in the country (Jedy–Agba et al. 2012).

The present review shows that very few studies have been conducted on radioactivity levels in surface and underground waters which are sources of drinking water for most Nigerians. Ingestion of radionuclides through drinking water can serve as a major pathway to internal radiation exposure. As mentioned earlier in this review, the radioactivity levels in water available for domestic and industrial purposes in the country have generated some concerns among the researchers who have worked on these water samples. For instance, studies on water used by people in areas such as Ile-Ife (Tchokossa et al. 1999), Ondo state (Adebayo and Akinawo 2017; Ajayi and Adesida 2009), Ogun state (Ajayi and Achuka 2009), Federal Capital City (Umar et al. 2012), Kano state (Bello et al. 2020), Kwara state (Nwankwo 2013), Ogbomoso (Oni and Adagunodo 2019) and in Niger Delta region (Agbalagba and Onoja 2011; Onunogbo et al. 2017; Agbalagba et al. 2021), have shown higher radium concentrations as compared to the range of values observed worldwide (0.01 to 0.1 Bq l^{-1}) (Iyengar 1990; Dissanayake and Chandrajith 2009). This should warrant urgent action as ^{226}Ra is one of the radionuclides that may compromise human health, due to its long half-life and α -emission. Once ^{226}Ra is ingested in the body, critical target organs where it is accumulated due to its biokinetics are bones and teeth. Generally, ^{226}Ra is absorbed by metabolic processes instead of calcium, and may cause the splitting of chemical bonds in organic and mineral parts due to ionizing events (Aghamiri et al. 2006).

In addition, it is obvious that gamma-spectrometric approaches involving HPGe, NaI(Tl), and radiation survey meters are the analytical techniques of choice, and are generally acceptable for ^{238}U , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K radionuclide measurements. However, due to the rather high detection limits of the detectors used in these approaches, other radionuclides of importance such as ^{235}U , ^{234}Th , ^{210}Pb and cosmogenic

radionuclides (such as ^7Be), have been considered only by a few authors. It is important to note that ^{210}Pb and ^{210}Po , in particular, contribute to the exposure of humans to natural radiation. These radionuclides can be absorbed from the soil by plant roots or deposited on the plant shoots from the atmosphere (Persson and Holm 2014). Therefore, they should be considered in environmental radioactivity measurements, particularly in areas where prolonged industrial exploration and extraction processes have been reported. In a recent review on the status of radioactivity in the oil and gas producing areas of the Niger delta (Babatunde et al. 2019), and in the tin mining area of Jos Plateau (Aliyu et al. 2015b), it was shown that various anthropogenic activities have resulted in an increase of radionuclide levels in these areas, with the potential of some health consequences among the population. It is, therefore, suggested that the new analytical methods involving the use of advanced detectors such as Broad Energy High Purity Germanium (BEGe) and Low Energy Purity Germanium (LEGe) detectors, be encouraged for the determination of radionuclides emitting low energy photons such as ^{234}Th and ^{210}Pb present in the decay series of ^{238}U . Such studies, as have been reported elsewhere, will allow a better study of radioactive equilibrium between the radionuclides in the ^{238}U decay series (such as ^{226}Ra and ^{210}Pb as well as its short-lived alpha decay product ^{210}Po) (Anagnostakis 2015).

Finally, the development of predictive radioecological models for radionuclide levels in the environment can be a good way to study environmental radioactivity for an assessment of radiation-induced exposures and health effects.

Conclusion

Environmental radioactivity measurements are very important from the human and environmental protection point of view. For example, baseline radiation data are useful in decision making processes relating to land use, environmental conservation, agriculture, and public health. Where such data are not available, adequate monitoring by regulatory agencies for human radiation exposure and the development of policies will be difficult, and it is often impossible to detect any changes in radiation levels due to anthropogenic activities. In the present paper, studies were reviewed that were conducted on environmental radioactivity measurements in Nigeria. Thus, this review provides the radiation data of different environments in Nigeria in a single document. The review showed that the background radioactivity levels of most Nigerian soils fall within the world averages of 33, 45, and 420 Bq kg^{-1} for ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K , respectively, as reported by (UNSCEAR 2000), whereas a few high background radiation areas such as Abeokuta in

the southwest and Jos in the northcentral show values comparable to those of high background radiation areas in other regions of the world such as at the Odisha coast in India (where measured values were reported as 350, 2,825, and 180 Bq kg⁻¹ for ²³⁸U/²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K, respectively). It is expected that this review will be found useful by decision makers, and will support future research studies on environmental radioactive contamination among researchers in Nigeria.

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Declaration

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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